

**USARIEM TECHNICAL REPORT T-00/18**

**SUSCEPTIBILITY TO ACUTE MOUNTAIN SICKNESS:  
RELATIONSHIP TO PRE-ASCENT  
RESTING VENTILATION**

**U.S. ARMY RESEARCH INSTITUTE  
OF  
ENVIRONMENTAL MEDICINE**

**Natick, Massachusetts  
01760-5007**

**[DTIC QUALITY INSPECTED 1]**

**DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT A  
Approved for Public Release  
Distribution Unlimited**

**20000525 037**

The opinions or assertions contained herein are the private views of the author(s) and are not to be construed as official or as reflecting the views of the Army or the Department of Defense.

Human subjects participated in these studies after giving their free and informed voluntary consent. Investigators adhered to AR 70-25 and USAMRMC Regulation 70-25 on the use of volunteers in research.

Citations of commercial organizations and trade names in this report do not constitute an official Department of the Army endorsement or approval of the products or services of these organizations.

#### DTIC AVAILABILITY NOTICE

Qualified requesters may obtain copies of this report from Commander, Defense Technical Information Center (DTIC) (formerly DDC), Cameron Station, Alexandria, Virginia 22314.

#### DISPOSITION INSTRUCTIONS

Destroy this report when no longer needed.

Do not return to the originator.

# REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE

*Form Approved  
OMB No. 0704-0188*

Public reporting burden for this collection of information is estimated to average 1 hour per response, including the time for reviewing instructions, searching existing data sources, gathering and maintaining the data needed, and completing and reviewing the collection of information. Send comments regarding this burden estimate or any other aspect of this collection of information, including suggestions for reducing this burden, to Washington Headquarters Services, Directorate for Information Operations and Reports, 1215 Jefferson Davis Highway, Suite 1204, Arlington, VA 22202-4302, and to the Office of Management and Budget, Paperwork Reduction Project (0704-0188), Washington, DC 20503.

1. AGENCY USE ONLY <i>(Leave blank)</i>	2. REPORT DATE May 2000	3. REPORT TYPE AND DATES COVERED Technical Report	
4. TITLE AND SUBTITLE Susceptibility to Acute Mountain Sickness: Relationship to Pre-ascent Resting Ventilation		5. FUNDING NUMBERS	
6. AUTHOR(S) Stephen R. Muza, Paul B. Rock, Timothy Lyons, Charles S. Fulco, Beth A. Beidleman, and Allen Cymerman			
7. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION NAME(S) AND ADDRESS(ES) U.S. Army Research Institute of Environmental Medicine Natick, MA 01760-5007		8. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION REPORT NUMBER	
9. SPONSORING / MONITORING AGENCY NAME(S) AND ADDRESS(ES) U.S. Army Medical Research and Materiel Command Fort Detrick Frederick, MD 21702-5012		10. SPONSORING / MONITORING AGENCY REPORT NUMBER	
11. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES			
12a. DISTRIBUTION / AVAILABILITY STATEMENT Approved for public release; distribution unlimited		12b. DISTRIBUTION CODE	
13. ABSTRACT <i>(Maximum 200 words)</i> The objective of this study was to determine if the magnitude of the sea level pre-ascent resting ventilation and hypoxic ventilatory depression (HVD) are selective in identifying subjects who are susceptible to AMS. We hypothesized that individuals with lower effective alveolar ventilation, i.e., high resting end-tidal carbon dioxide partial pressure (PETCO <sub>2</sub> ), and high HVD will be more likely to develop AMS during subsequent exposure to 4300 m. Twenty volunteers spent 24 h in a hypobaric chamber at sea level undergoing baseline measurements. During this baseline period, the subjects completed sea level resting ventilation and HVD procedures. The next morning, the chamber was decompressed to simulated altitude (PB 430 or 446 mmHg) for approximately 32 h. Resting ventilation was measured after about 4 hours exposure to high altitude and AMS assessed using the Environmental Symptoms Questionnaire at 8-hour intervals throughout the altitude exposure. At sea level, all subjects had normal levels of ventilation and exhibited no evidence of hypoxemia. There was a wide distribution in the resting PETCO <sub>2</sub> , and HVD. At about 4 hours exposure to high altitude, both SaO <sub>2</sub> and PETCO <sub>2</sub> were lower ( $p < 0.002$ ) compared to sea level. The distribution of PETCO <sub>2</sub> and particularly SaO <sub>2</sub> widened at high altitude. The sea-level normoxic PETCO <sub>2</sub> was positively correlated to the high altitude PETCO <sub>2</sub> . Sixty percent of the volunteers developed AMS (AMS+) at some point during their altitude exposure. The resting SaO <sub>2</sub> in the AMS+ group tended ( $p = 0.193$ ) to be lower than the 40% not developing AMS (AMS-). The sea level HVD was significantly higher in the AMS+ group compared to the AMS- group; but there was a wide overlap in its distribution between the groups. None of the other sea level ventilatory measurements were meaningfully different between the AMS+ and AMS- groups. We conclude that sea level pre-ascent measures of ventilation during normoxic or sustained isocapnic hypoxia were minimally effective in identifying AMS-susceptible versus non-susceptible subjects.			
14. SUBJECT TERMS High altitude, altitude illness, Acute Mountain Sickness, ventilation, hypoxia, chemosensitivities		15. NUMBER OF PAGES 18	
		16. PRICE CODE	
17. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF REPORT Unclassified	18. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF THIS PAGE Unclassified	19. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF ABSTRACT Unclassified	20. LIMITATION OF ABSTRACT Unlimited

**USARIEM TECHNICAL REPORT T-00/18**

**SUSCEPTIBILITY TO ACUTE MOUNTAIN SICKNESS:  
RELATIONSHIP TO PRE-ASCENT RESTING VENTILATION**

**Prepared by**

**Stephen R. Muza, Ph.D., Paul B. Rock, D.O., Ph.D., Timothy Lyons, Ph.D.,  
Charles S. Fulco, Sc.D., Beth A. Beidleman, M.S. and Allen Cymerman, Ph.D.**

**U.S. ARMY RESEARCH INSTITUTE  
OF  
ENVIRONMENTAL MEDICINE**

**Natick, Massachusetts  
01760-5007**

**Approved for public release  
Distribution Unlimited**

**Technical Report NO. T-00/18**

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES AND TABLES.....	ii
BACKGROUND.....	iii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS .....	iii
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY.....	1
INTRODUCTION .....	3
OBJECTIVE.....	5
METHODS.....	5
SUBJECTS.....	5
PROTOCOL .....	5
MEASUREMENTS .....	6
STATISTICAL ANALYSIS .....	7
RESULTS.....	8
DISCUSSION .....	13
REFERENCES .....	16

## LIST OF FIGURES AND TABLES

<u>FIGURES AND TABLES</u>	<u>PAGE</u>
Figure 1. Sea level ventilatory protocol illustrating the time line and sequence of the normoxic (NOX), acute isocapnic hypoxic (AHX) and chronic isocapnic hypoxic (CHX) measurements.....	11
Figure 2. Histograms showing distribution of the sea level determined Hypoxic Ventilatory Depression (HVD) for AMS susceptible (AMS+) and non-susceptible (AMS-) subjects.....	12
Table 1. Resting ventilatory parameters at sea level and high altitude. ....	9
Table 2. AMS symptom scores and resting ventilatory parameters at high altitude segregated by AMS susceptibility.....	9
Table 3. Resting ventilatory parameters at sea level segregated by AMS susceptibility.....	10

## **BACKGROUND**

Mountain environments are likely areas of military confrontation. Mountain ranges typically form the borders of nations, and numerous regions of geopolitical interest to the U.S. such as the Balkans, South America, the Middle East, and Asia contain extensive areas of moderate (>1500 m) to high (>2400 m) altitudes. Rapid force projection to such altitudes presents challenges in sustaining optimal military performance due to the hypoxia associated with altitude exposure and its deleterious affect on mission-related work activities. Acute Mountain Sickness (AMS), caused by hypobaric hypoxia, will negatively impact military operations. Current interventions to prevent AMS include slow or staged ascent and select pharmaceuticals. However, each currently available procedure or medication for prophylaxis or treatment of AMS can constrain or degrade mission effectiveness independent of AMS. Susceptibility to AMS is not uniform. Thus, identifying individuals most susceptible to AMS may help limit the need for widespread use of prophylactic medication by targeting only those AMS-susceptible individuals. Currently, there are no known physiological markers of AMS susceptibility other than prior high altitude exposure and history or absence of high altitude illness. Thus, there is a need to evaluate promising physiological indices of AMS susceptibility. This study was funded under U.S. Army Medical Research and Materiel Command Scientific and Technical Objective J.

## **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

The dedicated and professional efforts of Mr. James Devine, Mr. Richard Langevin, Mr. Stephen P. Mullen, SGT James Kenney, and Mr. Vincent A. Forte supporting the collection, analysis and presentation of the data are acknowledged and greatly appreciated.

## **EXECUTIVE SUMMARY**

Acute Mountain Sickness (AMS) is a multi-system disorder that is principally characterized by headache, anorexia, nausea, vomiting, insomnia, lassitude, and malaise. The syndrome is common in unacclimatized low altitude residents who rapidly ascend to terrestrial elevations exceeding 2,500 m. The symptoms usually appear within 24 h of exposure and normally resolve after several days. Acute Mountain Sickness is usually self-limited, but may progress into high altitude cerebral edema (HACE) or high altitude pulmonary edema (HAPE), both of which are life-threatening.

The balance of data suggests a relatively greater hypoxemia in AMS-susceptible subjects compared to non-susceptible subjects at high altitude. This greater hypoxemia may result from a low hypoxic ventilatory response (HVR), high hypoxic ventilatory depression (HVD) and/or impaired pulmonary gas exchange.

The objective of this study was to determine if the magnitude of the sea level pre-existent resting ventilation and HVD are selective in identifying subjects who are susceptible to AMS. We hypothesized that individuals with lower effective alveolar ventilation, i.e., high resting end-tidal carbon dioxide partial pressure ( $\text{PETCO}_2$ ), and high HVD will be more likely to develop AMS during subsequent exposure to 4300 m.

This report documents the relationship between resting ventilation and AMS in two related studies of AMS. One study involved 8 male volunteers exposed to a simulated altitude of 4572 m ( $P_B$  430 mmHg) in a hypobaric chamber for approximately 32 h. The second study involved 12 women volunteers exposed to a simulated altitude of 4300 m ( $P_B$  446 mmHg) in the same hypobaric chamber for approximately 34 h. Other than the different altitudes, the methods, procedures and test schedules utilized in each study were nearly identical. For each study, volunteers first spent 24 h in the hypobaric chamber at sea level undergoing baseline measurements. During this baseline period, the subjects completed sea level resting ventilation, HVR and HVD procedures. The next morning, the chamber was decompressed to altitude. Resting ventilation was measured after about 4 hours exposure to high altitude and AMS assessed using the Environmental Symptoms Questionnaire at 8-hour intervals throughout the altitude exposure.

At sea level, all subjects had normal levels of ventilation and exhibited no evidence of hypoxemia. There was a wide distribution in the resting PETCO<sub>2</sub>, HVR and HVD. At sea level, there were no significant correlations between normoxic PETCO<sub>2</sub>, normoxic VE, HVR or HVD. At about 4 hours exposure to high altitude, both SaO<sub>2</sub> and PETCO<sub>2</sub> were lower ( $p<0.002$ ) compared to sea level. The distribution of PETCO<sub>2</sub> and particularly SaO<sub>2</sub> widened at high altitude. The sea-level normoxic PETCO<sub>2</sub> was positively correlated to the high altitude PETCO<sub>2</sub>.

Sixty percent of the volunteers developed AMS (AMS+) at some point during their altitude exposure. The resting SaO<sub>2</sub> in the AMS+ group tended ( $p = 0.193$ ) to be lower than the 40% not developing AMS (AMS-). The sea level HVD was significantly higher in the AMS+ group compared to the AMS- group; but there was a wide overlap in its distribution between the groups. None of the other sea level ventilatory measurements were meaningfully different between the AMS+ and AMS- groups.

We conclude that sea level pre-ascent measures of ventilation during normoxic or sustained isocapnic hypoxia were minimally effective in identifying AMS-susceptible versus non-susceptible subjects. However, sea-level normoxic resting PETCO<sub>2</sub> was significantly related to the magnitude of effective ventilation at altitude, and may be useful in identifying individuals in need of slower or staged ascent profiles to induce acclimatization.

## INTRODUCTION

Acute Mountain Sickness (AMS) is a syndrome that is characterized by headache, anorexia, nausea, vomiting, insomnia, lassitude, and malaise. The syndrome has great individual variation in susceptibility; however, the hypoxia-induced symptoms are most common in unacclimatized low altitude residents who rapidly ascend to terrestrial elevations exceeding 2,500 m (18). The symptoms of AMS commonly appear within 4 to 24 h of exposure, and usually resolve after several days as acclimatization to hypoxia is achieved. Acute Mountain Sickness is usually self-limited, but may progress into high altitude cerebral edema (HACE) or high altitude pulmonary edema (HAPE), both of which are potentially life-threatening.

There is evidence that AMS-susceptible subjects have a relatively greater degree of hypoxemia compared to well subjects at high altitude. Many studies have reported that compared to well subjects, subjects who will develop and who have developed AMS have either a lower alveolar ventilation, alveolar oxygen partial pressure ( $\text{PAO}_2$ ) or arterial oxygen saturation ( $\text{SaO}_2$ ), or higher alveolar carbon dioxide partial pressure ( $\text{PACO}_2$ ) (1,3,8,12,15,20,27). Although two recent studies (9,21) did not find significant differences in ventilation or  $\text{SaO}_2$  between sick and well subjects at high altitude, the balance of data suggests a relatively greater hypoxemia in AMS-susceptible subjects compared to non-susceptible subjects at high altitude. This greater hypoxemia may result from a low hypoxic ventilatory response (HVR), high hypoxic ventilatory depression (HVD) and/or impaired pulmonary gas exchange.

The ventilatory response to sustained hypoxia is characterized by three phases (6,30). Phase I occurs within the first few minutes of hypoxic challenge, and is identified by an increase in ventilation due to stimulation of the peripheral chemoreceptors (i.e., HVR). However, this period of elevated ventilation is brief and followed by a decline in ventilation that may approach levels 25-50% of the peak response within 30 minutes (6,30). This hypoxic ventilatory depression (HVD) characterizes phase II and is present even during isocapnia (i.e., constant peripheral chemoreceptor stimulation). Therefore, it is believed to be of central origin (6,22,28,31). Finally, with prolonged (hours to days) exposure, ventilation progressively increases. This latter ventilatory response (phase III) is considered part of the altitude

acclimatization process (2,5,29). During the first hours following rapid ascent to high altitude, when AMS is developing, alveolar ventilation is most likely determined by a balance between HVR and HVD (11).

The magnitude of an individual's ventilatory response to acute and chronic poikilocapnic hypoxia (i.e., high altitude) is positively related to their sea level resting end-tidal ( $\text{PETCO}_2$ ) (17,19). These two studies found a moderate degree of correlation (range 0.46 – 0.66) between their subjects' sea level and high altitude resting  $\text{PETCO}_2$  during the first 48 h at 4300 m elevation. These data suggest that sea level resting  $\text{PETCO}_2$  may identify subjects who will likely have low alveolar ventilation upon ascent to high altitude and thus be at greater risk for developing AMS.

Several studies have examined whether a low baseline HVR may be predisposing to AMS. In these studies, each subject's isocapnic HVR at low altitude was measured and subsequently compared to their AMS-susceptibility determined during a sojourn to high altitude (9,10,14). In two of the three studies (10,14), no correlation was found between baseline HVR and AMS-susceptibility in the 62 participating subjects. In the third study (9), the cumulative AMS severity scores of 12 subjects were inversely correlated with their baseline HVRs. Given that all three of these studies were mountaineering expeditions, a strong relationship between baseline HVR and AMS-susceptibility may have been obscured by other factors which influence AMS development such as rate of ascent, work/rest cycles, work rates, food and beverage consumption and exposure to temperature extremes.

A study by Moore et al. (15) looked at the relationship between ventilation at low and high altitudes and AMS in a hypobaric chamber. At their baseline altitude (1,600 m) AMS-susceptible subjects had a lower HVR than non-susceptible subjects. Moreover, compared to AMS non-susceptible subjects, AMS-susceptible subjects had a greater fall in their ventilation after 4.5 h exposure to 4,500 m altitude equivalent in a hypobaric chamber relative to their low altitude ventilation during acute poikilocapnic hypoxia. The authors proposed that the factors responsible for the symptoms of AMS or the symptoms themselves acted in conjunction with prolonged hypoxia to depress ventilation in symptomatic individuals. One known factor that could account for the fall in ventilation is HVD. However, at their baseline altitude (1600 m) both AMS

susceptible and non-susceptible subjects had similar decreases in ventilation (HVD) during 30 min of either isocapnic or poikilocapnic hypoxia. A possible reason for the lack of a difference between the AMS susceptible and non-susceptible subjects at baseline may have been that during their 30 min hypoxic exposure studies, the inspired oxygen concentration ( $\text{FIO}_2$ ) was set at a different level for each subject. The authors adjusted the  $\text{FIO}_2$  to achieve a similar level of  $\text{SaO}_2$  (~81%) in each subject. Accordingly, subjects with greater HVD would have received a lower hypoxic stimulus (i.e., higher  $\text{FIO}_2$ ) than subjects with a lower HVD. Thus, maintaining the  $\text{SaO}_2$  constant should have minimized differences in the measured HVD and decreased the likelihood that a lower pre-ascent baseline altitude HVD would be detectable in the AMS-susceptible subjects.

## OBJECTIVE

The objective of this study was to determine if the magnitude of the sea level pre-ascent resting ventilation, HVR and HVD are selective in identifying subjects who are susceptible to AMS. We hypothesized that individuals with lower effective alveolar ventilation, i.e., high resting  $\text{PETCO}_2$  and high HVD will be more likely to develop AMS during subsequent exposure to 4300 m equivalent in a hypobaric chamber.

## METHODS

### SUBJECTS

Twenty volunteers (8 male, 12 female) with a mean ( $\pm \text{SD}$ ) age and body weight of  $23 \pm 4$  yrs and  $66 \pm 10$  kg participated in this study. Each was a lifelong low altitude resident and had no exposure to altitudes greater than 1000 m for at least 6 months immediately preceding the study. All volunteers received medical examinations, and none were found to have any condition that would warrant exclusion from the study. All participated in regular physical training and were of average fitness. Each gave written and verbal acknowledgment of their informed consent and was made aware of their right to withdraw without prejudice at any time.

### PROTOCOL

This study was conducted as a subpart of two studies of AMS. One study involved 8 male volunteers exposed to a simulated altitude of 4572 m ( $P_B = 430 \text{ mmHg}$ ) in a hypobaric chamber for approximately 32 h. The second study involved 12 women volunteers

exposed to a simulated altitude of 4300 m ( $P_B$  446 mmHg) in the same hypobaric chamber for approximately 34 h. All the women were studied in the follicular phase of their menstrual cycle determined by self-reporting and confirmed by ovarian hormone analysis. Other than the different altitudes, the methods, procedures and test-schedules utilized in each study were nearly identical.

For each trial, volunteers first spent 24 h in the hypobaric chamber at sea level undergoing baseline measurements. During this baseline period, the subjects completed the sea level resting ventilation, HVR and HVD procedures. The next morning, the chamber was decompressed at the rate of 45 mmHg•min<sup>-1</sup>. Food and fluid consumption was *ad libitum* throughout the study except for 2 h immediately preceding the ventilatory studies and one 8-h period in the early morning to facilitate body fluid compartment measurements, as dictated by a companion study. After ~32 h the chamber was recompressed to sea level, and the studies were concluded.

## MEASUREMENTS

The Environmental Symptoms Questionnaire (ESQ) was used to assess AMS symptoms. The ESQ was administered at 0600 h and 2000 h during sea level testing and at 0600, 1200 h, and 2000 h at high altitude. The ESQ is a self-reported 67-question symptom inventory designed to quantify symptoms induced by altitude and other stressful environments and conditions (4). To document the presence of AMS, a weighted average of cerebral (AMS-C) and respiratory (AMS-R) symptoms were calculated from the ESQ scores (4). An AMS-C value of 0.7 or greater or an AMS-R value greater than 0.6 indicates the presence of AMS. The effectiveness of AMS-C scores in identifying individuals with AMS has been previously reported and validated (4).

All respiratory testing was performed in a comfortable, quiet laboratory setting. The subjects were studied after fasting at least 2 hours. During testing, subjects rested in a semi-supine posture while listening to music. Subjects breathed through a low resistance, non-rebreathing mouth/face mask (Hans Rudolph, Kansas City, MO) for at least 5 min before the start of data collection. Subjects were familiarized with the ventilatory tests a few days before the sea level studies.

For the sea level resting ventilation and steady-state, isocapnic-hypoxic ventilatory studies, the subjects breathed through a mask attached to a source of

inspired gas (room air or a hypoxic gas mixture:  $\text{FIO}_2$  0.125, balance  $\text{N}_2$ ). The following measurements were made: inspired flow with a heated pneumotachograph (Hewlett-Packard, Andover, MA),  $\text{SaO}_2$  by pulse oximetry (SensorMedics Corp., Yorba Linda, CA), and inspired and expired carbon dioxide and oxygen concentrations by rapidly responding analyzers (LB-2, Beckman, Anaheim, CA and S3-A, Applied Electrochemistry, Inc., Sunnyvale, CA, respectively). All measured variables were continuously recorded on a PC-based data acquisition system (DATAQ Instruments, Inc., Akron, OH). Post-test, minute ventilation (VE) was calculated from the integrated inspiratory flow, and  $\text{PETCO}_2$  was identified from the  $\text{PCO}_2$  data.

As shown in Fig. 1, during the 5-min baseline period at sea level, the subject breathed room air (normoxia [NO<sub>X</sub>]). From this data, the subject's  $\text{PETCO}_2$  was identified. After baseline ventilation measures were obtained, the subject was switched, without warning, to the hypoxic gas source. Ventilatory responses to acute isocapnic hypoxia (AHX) were collected over the first 5-10 min and to chronic isocapnic hypoxia (CHX) over the last 5 min of the 30-min steady-state isocapnic hypoxic exposure. Isocapnia was maintained by addition of 100%  $\text{CO}_2$  to the inspired gas. The HVR slope ( $\Delta\text{VE} \cdot \Delta\text{SaO}_2^{-1}$ ) was calculated from the initial VE rise in response to the AHX using least squares regression. The HVD was calculated:  $\text{HVD} (\text{l} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}) = \text{VE}_{\text{AHX}} - \text{VE}_{\text{CHX}}$ . At high altitude, resting ventilation was measured after about 4 hours exposure.

## STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

First, changes in ventilatory parameters from sea level to high altitude were compared using the Student T-test. Also, possible correlations between the sea level measurements and the high altitude measurements were evaluated using the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation method. Second, the subjects were then divided into two groups depending upon whether they developed or did not develop AMS (AMS+, or AMS-). Sea level and high altitude measurements of the AMS+ and AMS- groups were compared using the Student T-test, or if the data deviated significantly from normality or failed to meet the qualifying assumptions of analysis of variance, the data were analyzed using the Mann-Whitney Rank Sum Test. Statistical significance was accepted at  $p \leq 0.05$ . Values are presented as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation (SD).

## RESULTS

At sea level, all subjects had normal levels of ventilation and exhibited no evidence of hypoxemia (Table 1). As expected, there was a wide distribution in the resting PETCO<sub>2</sub>, HVR and HVD. At sea level, there were no significant correlations between normoxic PETCO<sub>2</sub> and the normoxic VE or the HVR and HVD. After about 4 hours exposure to high altitude, both SaO<sub>2</sub> and PETCO<sub>2</sub> were lower ( $p<0.002$ ) compared to sea level. The distribution of PETCO<sub>2</sub> and particularly SaO<sub>2</sub> widened at high altitude (Table 1). Subjects with high PETCO<sub>2</sub> at altitude had relatively lower SaO<sub>2</sub> ( $r = -0.54$ ,  $p=0.014$ ). The sea level normoxic PETCO<sub>2</sub> was positively correlated to the high altitude PETCO<sub>2</sub> ( $r = 0.67$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ), and negatively correlated to the high altitude PETO<sub>2</sub> ( $r = -0.61$ ,  $p = 0.005$ ) and SaO<sub>2</sub> ( $r = -0.54$ ,  $p=0.015$ ).

Twelve of the twenty volunteers (60%) developed AMS during the period of their high altitude exposure. Table 2 presents high altitude physiological measurements segregated by absence or presence of AMS. After about 4 hours exposure to high altitude, the resting SaO<sub>2</sub> in the *AMS+* group tended to be lower than in the *AMS-* group. Likewise, a weak negative correlation was observed between the subject's highest AMS-C score and their high altitude resting SaO<sub>2</sub> ( $r = -0.39$ ,  $p = 0.086$ ). Otherwise, there were no apparent ventilatory differences between the two groups at high altitude. When the sea level data were retrospectively analyzed based upon the presence or absence of AMS, the sea level HVD was significantly higher in the *AMS+* group verses the *AMS-* group (Table 3). However, there was a wide overlap in the distribution of the sea level HVD between the *AMS+* and *AMS-* groups (Figure 2). None of the other sea level ventilatory measurements distinguished between the *AMS+* and *AMS-* groups (Table 3).

**Table 1. Resting ventilatory parameters at sea level and high altitude.**

Variable	n	Mean	$\pm$ S.D.	95% C.I. of Difference	p
<b>Sea Level:</b>					
VE ( $\text{l}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ )	20	9.5	2.2		
PETCO <sub>2</sub> (mmHg)	20	39.8	3.7		
PETO <sub>2</sub> (mmHg)	20	109.4	4.8		
SaO <sub>2</sub> (%)	20	97	1		
HVR ( $\Delta\text{VE}\cdot\Delta\text{SpO}_2^{-1}$ )	20	0.42	0.26		
HVD ( $\text{l}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ )	20	1.75	1.70		
<b>High Altitude:</b>					
VE ( $\text{l}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ )	20	9.5	2.7	-1.5 to 1.6	0.989
PETCO <sub>2</sub> (mmHg)	20	35.7	3.9	1.6 to 6.5	0.002
PETO <sub>2</sub> (mmHg)	20	50.9	6.0	55.1 to 62.0	0.001
SaO <sub>2</sub> (%)	20	79	8	14 to 21	0.001*

\*Mann-Whitney Rank Sum Test

**Table 2. AMS symptom scores and resting ventilatory parameters at high altitude segregated by AMS susceptibility.**

Variable	n	Mean	$\pm$ S.D.	95% C.I. of Difference	p
<b>AMS-:</b>					
ESQ-C score	8	0.354	0.177		
VE ( $\text{l}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ )	8	9.8	2.6		
PETCO <sub>2</sub> (mmHg)	8	35.3	4.0		
PETO <sub>2</sub> (mmHg)	8	51.1	5.3		
SaO <sub>2</sub> (%)	8	82	4		
<b>AMS+:</b>					
ESQ-C score	12	1.974	1.093	0.795 to 2.447	0.001*
VE ( $\text{l}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ )	12	9.3	2.8	-2.1 to 3.1	0.692
PETCO <sub>2</sub> (mmHg)	12	35.9	4.0	-4.5 to 3.2	0.739
PETO <sub>2</sub> (mmHg)	12	50.8	6.7	-5.6 to 6.2	0.916
SaO <sub>2</sub> (%)	12	78	9	-2.6 to 11.9	0.197

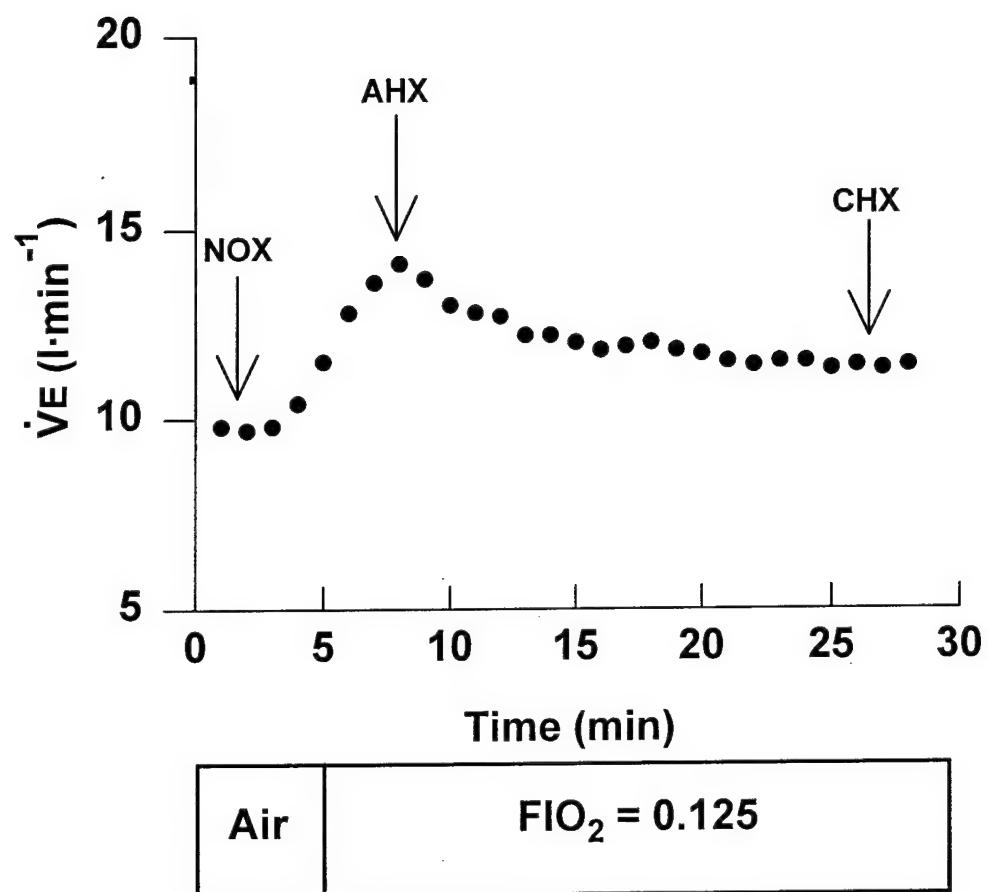
\*Mann-Whitney Rank Sum Test

**Table 3. Resting ventilatory parameters at sea level segregated by AMS susceptibility.**

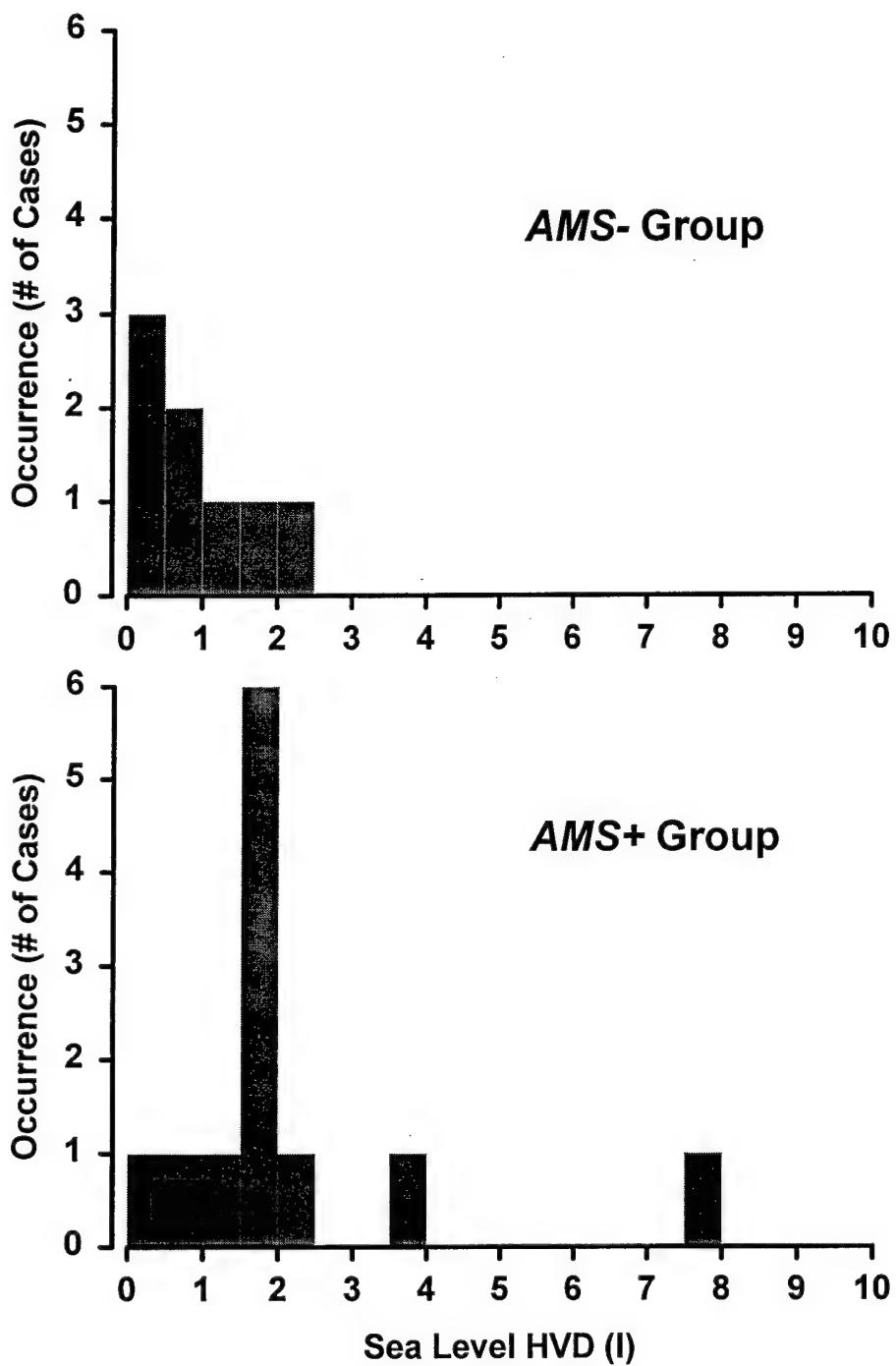
Variable	n	Mean	±S.D.	95% C.I. of Difference	p
<b>AMS-:</b>					
VE ( $\text{l}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ )	8	9.8	2.2		
PETCO <sub>2</sub> (mmHg)	8	39.5	4.1		
PETO <sub>2</sub> (mmHg)	8	109.5	5.8		
SaO <sub>2</sub> (%)	8	97	1		
VE <sub>CHX</sub> ( $\text{l}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ )	8	12.0	3.5		
SaO <sub>2CHX</sub> (%)	8	88	2		
HVR ( $\Delta\text{VE}\cdot\Delta\text{SpO}_2^{-1}$ )	8	0.44	0.20		
HVD ( $\text{l}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ )	8	0.93	0.85		
<b>AMS+:</b>					
VE ( $\text{l}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ )	12	9.2	2.3	-1.6 to 2.7	0.596
PETCO <sub>2</sub> (mmHg)	12	39.9	3.7	-4.1 to 3.3	0.815
PETO <sub>2</sub> (mmHg)	12	109.4	4.4	-4.6 to 4.9	0.948
SaO <sub>2</sub> (%)	12	97	1	-1 to 1	0.879*
VE <sub>CHX</sub> ( $\text{l}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ )	12	9.8	2.9	-0.9 to 5.2	0.151
SaO <sub>2CHX</sub> (%)	12	86	4	-2 to 5	0.348
HVR ( $\Delta\text{VE}\cdot\Delta\text{SpO}_2^{-1}$ )	12	0.40	0.29	-0.20 to 0.30	0.699
HVD ( $\text{l}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ )	12	2.30	1.92	-0.17 to 2.89	0.025*

\*Mann-Whitney Rank Sum Test

**Figure 1.** Sea level ventilatory protocol illustrating the time line and sequence of the normoxic (NOX), acute isocapnic hypoxic (AHX) and chronic isocapnic hypoxic (CHX) measurements.



**Figure 2. Histograms showing distribution of the sea level determined Hypoxic Ventilatory Depression (HVD) for AMS susceptible (AMS+) and non-susceptible (AMS-) subjects.**



## DISCUSSION

This study tested the hypothesis that individuals with lower effective ventilation at sea level (i.e., higher resting PETCO<sub>2</sub>); and greater ventilatory depression in response to 30 minutes sustained isocapnic hypoxia would be at greater risk for developing AMS during exposure to high altitude. The basis for the hypothesis was the observation that AMS is more likely to develop in subjects with the lowest arterial oxygen saturation relative to well subjects at that same elevation. Our results do not support this hypothesis. We did find a significantly greater HVD in AMS susceptible subjects, but no other sea level ventilatory parameter distinguished between AMS-susceptible and non-susceptible subjects.

Our subjects demonstrated a wide range of interindividual differences in ventilation at sea level and high altitude and the differences at altitude were related to ventilatory differences among individuals before ascent. Normoxic resting PETCO<sub>2</sub> at sea level was related significantly to PETCO<sub>2</sub> at altitude. These results are in agreement with those reported by Reeves et al. (19) in men and by Muza et al. (17) in women. We expected these observations and hypothesized that subjects with lower effective ventilation at sea level and altitude would be more susceptible to developing AMS. But, at high altitude prior to development of AMS, we did not find significantly lower ventilation in the AMS-susceptible subjects relative to the well subjects. This latter observation is consistent with recently reported findings by Roach et al. (21). Thus, it was not surprising that the pre-ascent sea level resting PETCO<sub>2</sub> did not discern between the AMS-susceptible and non-susceptible subjects.

Previous studies (11,15,24,25) have observed HVD in humans during residence at high altitude. Moore et al. (15) reported that subjects with a prior history of moderate-to-severe AMS had not only a lower HVR to the acute hypoxia, but also a greater subsequent blunting of ventilation (i.e., HVD). However, their method of inducing sustained hypoxia at their baseline altitude (1,500 m) did not distinguish between the AMS-susceptible and non-susceptible subjects. Our approach to inducing sustained isocapnic hypoxia at sea level did produce a wide distribution of HVD in our subjects (Figure 2). Moreover, our AMS-susceptible subjects did demonstrate a significantly greater HVD than the non-susceptible subjects. However, the difference between the two groups was relatively small, and more importantly, there was large overlap between the AMS-susceptible and non-susceptible

subjects. Finally, in a subset of our subjects ( $n = 10$ ) we were able to repeat the sea level HVD measurements (data not reported) about one month apart from the reported results. In this group HVD reproducibility was poor. Thus, we conclude that measurement of isocapnic HVD by the technique we used is not a practical approach to identifying AMS-susceptibility prior to ascent.

Our hypothesis that sea level measures of ventilation under normoxic and short-term isocapnic hypoxia can identify AMS-susceptible individuals was based on the observation that at high altitude hypoxemia is greater in those individuals developing AMS or sick with AMS (1,3,8,12,15,20,27). However, our study and several others have not always shown a clear distinction in the magnitude of hypoxemia between AMS-susceptible and non-susceptible subjects. Roach et al. (20) had suggested that resting  $\text{SaO}_2$  at high altitude may be a good predictor of AMS-susceptibility because it represents the outcome of a number of factors including barometric pressure, ventilation, gas exchange and the oxygen-hemoglobin dissociation curve. Furthermore, measurement of  $\text{SaO}_2$  is simple, reliable and easy to do in a field environment. In our study, the lowest  $\text{SaO}_2$  measurements observed were in the AMS-susceptible subjects. But, only 4 out of 12 of our AMS-susceptible subjects had an  $\text{SaO}_2$  at high altitude lower than any of the non-susceptible subjects. Recently, Roach et al (21) reported that in seven men exposed to 4,800 m in a hypobaric chamber, resting  $\text{SaO}_2$  was not related to AMS. That study did find that AMS was exacerbated by prolonged submaximal exercise, possibly by exercise-induced hypoxemia. Measurement of awake, resting  $\text{SaO}_2$  alone is probably not an accurate representation of the actual hypoxemia experienced by individuals at high altitude. Not only is hypoxemia exaggerated by exercise, but also during sleep (33). Thus, we suggest that a cumulative  $\text{SaO}_2$  score incorporating  $\text{SaO}_2$  measurements made on a regular schedule during rest, exercise and sleep may increase the specificity of  $\text{SaO}_2$  as a predictor of AMS.

The lack of a strong correlation between ventilation and AMS susceptibility also probably reflects the multifaceted aspects of the illness. Fluid retention and antidiuresis has been associated with individual susceptibility to AMS and other altitude-induced illnesses (7,26,32). Hackett et al. (7) found a high correlation of both incidence and severity between the symptoms of AMS, HAPE, HACE and peripheral edema following rapid ascent to high altitude, and suggested that abnormalities in body fluid regulation

may be central to development of these edemas. Other investigators have also reported that the susceptibility to AMS is increased in those people that have reduced urine outputs during the first few days at altitude (13,26,32). Successful altitude acclimatization and absence of AMS, in contrast, is associated with diuresis and a rapid resolution of the symptoms of altitude illness (8,26). Another factor, which may determine susceptibility to AMS, is cranium or spinal column volumes. Recently we reported (16) that in AMS-susceptible and non-susceptible individuals, brain volume increased by about 2% during 32 h high altitude exposure. It has been suggested that AMS develops in those individuals who cannot accommodate the brain volume increase because of relatively small cranium and spinal column volume (23).

In summary, this study found that sea level pre-ascent measures of ventilation during normoxic or sustained isocapnic hypoxia were minimally effective in identifying AMS-susceptible verses non-susceptible subjects. Sea level normoxic resting PETCO<sub>2</sub> was related significantly to the magnitude of effective ventilation at altitude, and may be useful in identifying individuals in need of slower or staged ascent profiles to induce acclimatization. Finally, an effective means of identifying AMS-susceptible subjects may require a more robust multi organ system approach including ventilation, body fluid regulation and brain volume to cranium volume assessments.

## REFERENCES

1. Anholm, J.D., C.S. Houston, and T.M. Hyers. The relationship between acute mountain sickness and pulmonary ventilation at 2835 m (9,300 feet). Chest, 75: 33-36, 1979.
2. Bisgard, G.E. and H.V. Forster. Ventilatory responses to acute and chronic hypoxia. In: Handbook of Physiology Section 4: Environmental Physiology, M.J. Fregly and C.M. Blatteis (Eds.). Oxford University Press, New York, 1996, p. 1207-1239.
3. Boycott, A.E. and J.S. Haldane. The effects of low atmospheric pressures on respiration. J Physiol (Lond), 37: 355-377, 1908.
4. Bryant, H.J. and P.H. Abbrecht. Computer processing of phrenic neurograms. J Appl Physiol, 56(4): 1126-1134, 1984.
5. Dempsey, J.A. and H.V. Forster. Mediation of ventilatory adaptations. Physiol Rev, 62: 262-346, 1982.
6. Easton, P.A., L.J. Slykerman, and N.R. Anthonisen. Ventilatory response to sustained hypoxia in normal adults. J Appl Physiol, 61: 906-911, 1986.
7. Hackett, P.H., R. Drummond, R.F. Grover, and J.T. Reeves. Acute mountain sickness and the edemas of high altitude: a common pathogenesis? Respir Physiol, 46: 383-390, 1981.
8. Hackett, P.H., D. Rennie, S.E. Hofmeister, R.F. Grover, E.B. Grover, and J.T. Reeves. Fluid retention and relative hypoventilation in acute mountain sickness. Respiration, 43: 321-329, 1982.
9. Hoefer, M., G. W. Sybrecht, and D. Bauer. Hypoxic ventilatory response and associated heart rate change predict the severity of acute mountain sickness. In: Advances in Experimental Medicine and Biology. Vol 474. R.C. Roach, P.D. Wagner, and P.H. Hackett (Eds.). Kluwer Academic / Plenum Publishers. New York, 1999, p 391.
10. Hohenhaus, E., A. Paul, R.E. McCullough, H. Kucherer, and P. Bartsch. Ventilatory and pulmonary vascular response to hypoxia and susceptibility to high altitude pulmonary oedema. Eur Respir J, 8: 1825-1833, 1995.

11. Huang, S.Y., J.K. Alexander, R.F. Grover, J.T. Maher, R.E. McCullough, R.G. McCullough, L.G. Moore, J.B. Sampson, J.V. Weil, and J.T. Reeves. Hypocapnia and sustained hypoxia blunt ventilation on arrival at high altitude. J Appl Physiol, 56: 602-606, 1984.
12. Kronenberg, R.S., P. Safar, and J. Lee. Pulmonary artery pressure and alveolar gas exchange in man during acclimatization to 12,470 feet. J Clin Invest, 50: 827-837, 1971.
13. Miguères, M., R. Escamilla, F. Coca, A. Didier, and M. Krempf. Pulsed Doppler echocardiography in the diagnosis of pulmonary hypertension in COPD. Chest, 98: 280-285, 1990.
14. Milledge, J.S., P.S. Thomas, J.M. Beeley, and J.S. English. Hypoxic ventilatory response and acute mountain sickness. Eur Respir J, 1: 948-951, 1988.
15. Moore, L.G., G.L. Harrison, R.E. McCullough, R.G. McCullough, A.J. Micco, A. Tucker, J.V. Weil, and J.T. Reeves. Low acute hypoxic ventilatory response and hypoxic depression in acute altitude sickness. J Appl Physiol, 60: 1407-1412, 1986.
16. Muza, S. R., T. Lyons, P. B. Rock, C. S. Fulco, B. Beidleman, S. A. Smith, I. A. Morocz, G. P. Zientara, and A. Cymerman. Acute mountain sickness: relationship to brain volume and effect of oral glycerol prophylaxis. USARIEM Technical Report T98-20, June 1998.
17. Muza, S. R., P. B. Rock, C. S. Fulco, S. Zamudio, B. Braun, J.T. Reeves, A. Cymerman, G. Butterfield, and L. G. Moore. Ventilatory acclimatization in women to high altitude. USARIEM Technical Report T99-8, May 1999.
18. Onal, E., M. Lopata, and M.J. Evanich. Effects of electrode position on esophageal diaphragmatic EMG in humans. J Appl Physiol, 47(6): 1234-1238, 1979.
19. Reeves, J.T., R.E. McCullough, L.G. Moore, A. Cymerman, and J.V. Weil. Sea-level PCO<sub>2</sub> relates to ventilatory acclimatization at 4,300 m. J Appl Physiol, 75: 1117-1122, 1993.
20. Roach, R.C., E.R. Greene, R.B. Schoene, and P.H. Hackett. Arterial oxygen saturation for prediction of acute mountain sickness. Aviat Space Environ Med, 69: 1182-1185, 1998.
21. Roach, R.C., D. Maes, D. Sandoval, R.A. Robergs, M. Icenogle, H. Hinghofer-Szalkay, D. Lium, and J.A. Loepky. Exercise exacerbates acute mountain sickness at simulated high altitude. J Appl Physiol, 88: 581-585, 2000.
22. Robbins, P.A. Hypoxic ventilatory decline: site of action. J Appl Physiol, 79: 373-374, 1995.

23. Ross, R.T. The random nature of cerebral mountain sickness [letter]. Lancet, 1: 990-991, 1985.
24. Sato, M., J.W. Severinghaus, and P. Bickler. Time course of augmentation and depression of hypoxic ventilatory responses at altitude. J Appl Physiol, 77: 313-316, 1994.
25. Sato, M., J.W. Severinghaus, F.L. Powell, F.D. Xu, and M.J. Spellman, Jr. Augmented hypoxic ventilatory response in men at altitude. J Appl Physiol, 73: 101-107, 1992.
26. Singh, I., P.K. Khanna, M.C. Srivastava, M. Lal, S.B. Roy, and C.S.V. Subramanyam. Acute mountain sickness. N Engl J Med, 280: 175-184, 1969.
27. Sutton, J.R., A.C. Bryan, C.W. Gray, E.S. Horton, A.S. Rebuck, W. Woodley, I.D. Rennie, and C.S. Houston. Pulmonary gas exchange in acute mountain sickness. Aviat Space Environ Med, 47: 1032-1037, 1976.
28. Vizek, M., C.K. Pickett, and J.V. Weil. Biphasic ventilatory response of adult cats to sustained hypoxia has central origin. J Appl Physiol, 63: 1658-1664, 1987.
29. Weil, J.V. Ventilatory control at high altitude. In: Handbook of Physiology, Section 3: The Respiratory System, Vol. II. Control of Breathing, Part 2, A.P. Fishman, N.S. Cherniack, and J.G. Widdicombe (Eds.). American Physiological Society, Bethesda, MD, 1986, p. 703-727.
30. Weil, J.V. and C.W. Zwillich. Assessment of ventilatory response to hypoxia: methods and interpretation. Chest, 70: S124-S128, 1976.
31. Weiskopf, R.B. and R.A. Gabel. Depression of ventilation during hypoxia in man. J Appl Physiol, 39: 911-915, 1975.
32. Westerterp, K.R., P. Robach, L. Wouters, and J.P. Richalet. Water balance and acute mountain sickness before and after arrival at high altitude of 4,350 m. J Appl Physiol, 80: 1968-1972, 1996.
33. White, D.P., K. Gleeson, C.K. Pickett, A.M. Rannels, A. Cyberman, and J.V. Weil. Altitude acclimatization: influence on periodic breathing and chemoresponsiveness during sleep. J Appl Physiol, 63: 401-412, 1987.